

LEGISLATION FOR A STRIKE OR LOCKOUT

Different Countries Have Formed Various Laws to Deal With Such Conditions.

PROHIBITIVE STATUTES

The European Nations Forbid Workers in Public Utility Service to Strike—Others Impose Obstacles.

The appearance of a volume of memoranda prepared by the labor department of the Board of Trade and relating to legislation abroad having reference to lockouts and strikes is to some extent opportune, the more so as this collection of extracts of laws has especial reference to those forms of industry which come within the term "public utility services," says *Engineering* magazine of London in a review of a book published by Wynman & Sons. For this term there is, as it happens, no exact definition. In the ordinary sense it might be regarded as covering all industries the temporary interruption of which would cause inconvenience or danger to the public. This, however, often appears to be too wide an interpretation. The actual term, as a matter of fact, seldom used, and in those instances in which it is employed has very varied meanings applied to it. The public utility services are, in a general sense, supposed to include water supply, electric and gas lighting, means of public locomotion and communication.

It seems rather strange, in those days of hygienic propaganda, that, with one exception, no specific reference, so far as we can find, is made so as to include sanitation within the term. How near akin this particular service is to those generally accepted as coming under the definition must be realized by all who read of the unfortunate conditions which prevailed in certain districts of Liverpool during the strike of August last. Instead of the term "public utility services," certain countries prefer to refer to these matters in another way. Reference is not made to the interruption of a service, but to interference with "necessary commodities."

In New South Wales, for instance, and in New Zealand, special conditions are imposed with respect to workers connected with supplies which have become necessities of life. In the former, in addition to gas and water supply, special conditions are imposed on workers connected with the coal industry and with the supply of "any article of food, the deprivation of which may tend to endanger human life or cause bodily injury." The supply of electricity is not specifically mentioned.

In New Zealand special conditions cover a wider scope—coal supply, electricity, coal gas, water, milk, slaughtering and supply of meat and the working of means of public communication. Canada brings public utility within the class requiring special conditions, since effects of the disturbances of the mining industry are so widespread.

The form taken by legislation connected with lockouts and strikes of all sorts varies immensely. It ranges on the one hand from complete prohibition to the prohibition of such actions merely during any official attempt to bring about a settlement of the dispute. Nine European countries have legislation designed to avoid strikes of employees engaged in public utility services, and of these five absolutely prohibit such workers to strike.

In three other European countries strikes are illegal unless regulations requiring notice, etc., are complied with. In other countries the limitations imposed on strikers merely relate to the completion of a task in hand, but in others strikes are indirectly rendered impossible in public services, owing to the attitude of the Government toward unions and such like organizations.

So far as British dominions are concerned, legislation in this direction has gone furthest in Australasia. Each of the various States comprised in the Commonwealth and the Dominion of New Zealand has its own laws; and, in addition, since federation a Commonwealth law has likewise been brought into being, having reference to disputes which affect more than one State. Such disputes, if it be in the public interest to do so, are to be settled by a court which has power to make an award. For the purpose of enforcing such awards, penalties may be inflicted, and these may be executed against the property of an organization. If the funds of the organization are insufficient individual members may be proceeded against. Several of the individual States follow similar lines connected with the working of conciliation boards or arbitration courts.

In Western Australia an act providing for the settlement of disputes by conciliation and arbitration is in force. Un-

der it is illegal to bring about a strike or lockout. The Government employees on the railways of this State are organized and are dealt with by the Government as an industrial union, and seven industrial agreements entered into by the railway commissioners with the employees were in force at one time recently. Initiating a strike is illegal, and trade union officials have been sentenced in this connection to fines of as much as £50. The New South Wales legislation provides for the settlement of disputes in various industries, and especially is intended to cover the conditions relating to workers connected with the supply of "necessary commodities," a definition of which has been given above. Decisions of the boards or courts are liable to enforcement. Penalties up to £1,000 an individual can be imposed for taking part in a strike or lockout, or in default two months imprisonment. Twelve months imprisonment can be given to persons inciting others to strike. Meetings for the purpose of instigating or managing a strike or lockout are illegal, and persons taking part in them are liable to twelve months imprisonment. The most interesting strike in New South Wales of recent years was the great coal strike of 1909-10, during which several leaders of the men were arrested and sentenced to eighteen months hard labor, and a large number of lodges of the union were closed. Officials were sentenced to fines of £100 each, and in default of payment were sent to prison.

In South Australia the penalty for an organization guilty of causing a strike or lockout is £500 and for an individual £20. In default of payment imprisonment is inflicted. Tasmania also has its strike and lockout legislation, while provisions are also made in Victoria with a like preventive object. In the latter State, however, the strike is not declared illegal; but in the event of a strike, or a determined movement to strike, a wages board award may be suspended by the Government. The State railway employees come in for special provisions, by which if they strike they forfeit all rights to pensions, gratuity, compensation, superannuation or retiring allowance, and are liable to dismissal, though reinstatement may be granted. Queensland has wages boards in operation, but no restrictions on the freedom to strike or lockout are imposed.

New Zealand has, perhaps, had more legislation of this kind than other countries. The reference of disputes to conciliation boards is obligatory. The Government railway servants are dealt with as an organized union by the Minister of Railways. Workers who are party to an industrial dispute are each liable to a fine of £10, and employers, who are party to a lockout, are each liable to a fine of £20. Outside persons instigating a strike are liable to fines of £20. Special penalties of a rather heavier nature are imposed in the case of persons connected with certain specified industries, the interruption of which would cause public inconvenience. It appears that 90 per cent. of the fines inflicted on strikers and employers have been collected in New Zealand.

In Canada legislation parallels of an altogether different character. It makes provision for the settlement of disputes by a committee of conciliation in case of a "dispute" likely to lead to a strike. The committee is appointed by the Minister for Labor on his own motion or at the request of a municipality affected. The committee has power to investigate and report publicly. Strikes pending reference to a committee or during investigation are illegal. This legislation does not refer to railways, the mining industry, etc. Penalties are inflicted for going on strike or lockout, or for inciting to either during the investigation. Penalties have been instituted under these acts. In some cases employers have been fined for lockouts, in others, unions for instigating to strike.

In Nova Scotia a lockout or strike is forbidden pending settlement under the miners' arbitration act. In Ontario councils of conciliation exist, but are not a penalty for no provision of strikes and lockouts. In the Transvaal, the act adopted operates something after the manner of the legislation in Canada and has special reference to the prevention of strikes in the mining industry, public services and trades to which the provisions may be specially applied. The act is designed to prevent strikes and lockouts, and to provide for the settlement of disputes by means of penalties consisting of imprisonment, or of fines for each day during which the strike or lockout may be in operation. Officials of companies and unions can be proceeded against.

In the United States, generally speaking, the individual States recognize the right to strike, and picketing, so long as it remains of a peaceful character, is not interfered with. Intimidation, however, is illegal. The railway employees do not come merely under State regulation. When serving corporations engaged in interstate commerce, they are under the supervision of the Federal authorities, and several Federal laws interfere with their freedom in this direction. Three such laws are considered to bear on this point. The first is the Federal Anti-Trust act of 1890, which forbids every contract, combination, or conspiracy in restraint of interstate trade. Though introduced originally to check the monopolies of capital, it is now taken as applying likewise to combinations of labor. The second act of importance is the Obstruction of Mail act, which makes it a crime to obstruct the mail service. The third is the Interstate Commerce act, which requires carriers to afford all reasonable facilities for the movement of commerce. Actions which interfere with this are illegal. In addition, there are several State laws prohibiting the abandonment of freight locomotives, etc., before arrival at destination.

Among European countries, restrictions in France amount to little more than provision in this last direction. Employees may not abandon trains during a journey. This provision insures some of the dangers of a sudden strike on the railways being avoided. Many countries are, however, much more severe in their laws. Conducted strikes are no longer punishable, except those connected with Government services or public utilities. They are forbidden in the railway, telegraph and other services, and strikers or persons inciting to strike are liable to imprisonment. Intimidation is also discounted, and punished in like manner. Agricultural laborers guilty of strikes are also liable to imprisonment. In Denmark there is a permanent arbitration court and a Government mediator; to act in violation of an award or agreement is illegal.

In Germany the right to strike exists, but does not extend to municipal undertakings, such as gas and water supply, or to railways, etc. Freedom to work is provided for. As regards the State employees, the ability to strike is practically withheld by the strictness with which surveillance is conducted with regard to industrial unions. Membership is strictly forbidden of any union which is deemed to be working in a direction inimical to the interests of the State.

The official in this country, who is brought into the case of such a man, and he would be dismissed from the service. On the Russian and Russian State railways, the railway employees are organized themselves in a public order, and like regulations are in force in the other States, so that now about 50 per cent. of the organized employees are subject to lockout. In Austria the public services are protected by controlling the formation of the unions. The formation of unions is not sanctioned if its aims are thought to be dangerous to the State. An organization of this type would be dissolved and its funds seized. In the country railway employees have enforced their demands by compelling strikers to the letter with all rules governing the service and operation, thereby delaying traffic in a really serious manner. This action is now regarded as a breach of the official oath no less serious than combining to strike.

The right of employees in the public service in Italy is also withheld, but by a different method. In these cases just referred to in the case of Austria the employees on the railways have obtained some of their demands. Soldier labor in Italy, and in other countries, and universal service enables the Government to meet the needs of the public in case of extreme emergency.

In Holland there is a special law preventing the striking of railway employees. In Belgium railway and public service employees may belong to unions subject to proper regulations. In Spain and Portugal strikes are not illegal if official notice is given beforehand. In Turkey the formation of trade unions in establishments carrying on public services is forbidden. In Sweden the employment of such services the employment of public forces may be used if necessary. In Rumania no State or public employee may join a trade union without first obtaining leave in writing from his superiors. In Switzerland the law regards striking from rather the negative point. If an employee is guilty of negligence or for set purpose does not properly fulfill his duties he may be fined.

COMBINATIONS IN FURS

Only One or Two Sorts Ought to Be Employed in a Garment.

With the changes of styles from year to year, furriers give considerable of their attention to the possibilities offered for making attractive combinations of different kinds of fur to be used in clothing. It has been found that simplicity is the best guide. In fact, simplicity in arrangement has become one of the laws of the furrier's art. One or two furs only should be employed in a garment, and the only outside trimming which should be permitted, and then only in particular instances, is lace.

The French have exerted a strong influence on the fur trade in this respect, as well as with regard to the styles for each season. A brown fur such as ermine, marten, mink, black marten, beaver and nutria, combines very readily with black or darker brown furs. Furs of white and gray tones, like the ermine, white lamb, chinchilla, blue fox, silver fox, possum, gray squirrel and gray lamb form agreeable contrasts with seal skins or black furs like Persian lamb, broadtail, astrachan, caracul lamb and so on. White furs may be used safely on several varieties of the light brown and gray furs. Mottled brown or gray furs should never be used together, however, as each neutralizes the other to the detriment of both.

The kind of hair which adorns the fur must also be taken into account when combining furs. The coarseness or the fineness of the fur are duly considered and combined, but the use of more than two kinds of fur in one article is quite likely to ruin the effect of what would be with one less variety a very fine garment.

When furs are sold in their natural color a slight difference in shade will make a considerable difference in price. The brown furs that command the highest prices are those that have a bluish tinge, because those having a reddish inclination are not so much in demand. In the case of gray furs, the bluish tendency is again sought after, while the grays that incline toward violet are not so highly esteemed. White furs must be pure white and black ones the deepest black to be classed with the finest of their kind.

In the combining and manipulating of skins in making fur clothes the American furriers are the most advanced. American ingenuity comes into play here and the other nations have not the qualities necessary to surpass it. As far as the cutting of furs is concerned there is little choice between London or Paris, Berlin or Vienna, New York or St. Petersburg, because fur cutters are, as a class, of a roving disposition, and wander from one fur manufacturing centre to another at their own sweet will. The only time when one of these cities is ahead of another in the matter of fur cutters is when a lot of the goods of the land is the same town at the same time.

By the advanced methods in use today in the cutting and fitting of furs, a person can have a fur garment fitted to him as accurately and well as he could one of plush or velvet or heavy cloth. A great advance in the manufacture of fur articles was made when the fur sewing machine was perfected in Germany and in America. This, of course, greatly cheapens the cost of production and at the same time turns out much better work than was accomplished when all the stitching was done by hand with needle and thread. These sewing machines, and used only on the straight seams, and they do as well work on the coats as can be done by gloves on leather gloves. The only time the fur sewing machine is likely to fall below the requirements is when the fur is of such a nature as to require hand work, as in skins and sheepskin rings, are done on it. Some parts of a fur garment must be stitched by hand, such as around the armholes in putting in sleeves and the collar.

New Lenoir at the town of Weissentels, there has grown up an enormous industry in making linings out of Russian gray squirrel skins. This employment is the principal support of the place. Properly dressed the backs of the squirrel skins are manufactured into one sort of lining, and the under parts, which are thinner, better in color and more uniform, are called squirrel-leg linings. Other sorts of linings are made from the whole skins, and still others from the pure white parts of the skins, which are spotted with black by having the tips of the animals ears sewn on to them here and there so as to resemble ermine. There is absolutely no waste as the bits of fur covering the head and legs of the squirrels are also made into linings.

The scraps of fur cast aside from the great workshops of America, Great Britain and France, consisting of heads, gills or throats, sides or flanks, paws and other pieces, are sent to Leprie to be utilized in the manner described. Many tons of such materials are also sent to Greece for manufacture into what there being extremely cheap. Despite the tediousness of making salable articles out of these scraps, which are uneven in shape and of different quality, the colors are matched with skill and the appearance of the state of furs is good.

The stitching itself, however, done by hand, is poor. The big heaps of fur scraps are piled up in the streets, and pieces that match well are collected in separate piles according to variety. The odd bits are dried.

Great quantities of cheap furs are imported from China. These are used for

linings in the European trade, but are little used in this country. The skins are brought in already dressed, and a large number of loose fur garments are imported ready made for the trade in cheap furs in England, Germany and France. The garments are usually made over. An exception to the cheap Chinese furs are the better grades of white Tibet lambs. The Chinese furrier does very skillful work in matching and making up the furs at his command, and the principal fault with his product is not with the handswork but with the skins themselves. They are not strong or durable and the celebrated curing process leaves the pelt with a very objectionable odor.

After the Boxer uprising in China, when the foreign troops looted the houses and other buildings, quantities of Chinese furs were brought back to London, where they commanded prices several times their real value. Mandarin's coats of dyed and patterned fur, natural ermine of a poor quality, much of it yellow rather than white, sold for from three to ten times their actual worth as furs. While this buying was going on so great was the eagerness of people to acquire something that however worthless possessed an atmosphere of mystery, tales of first class pelts were stored in London warehouses without being used.

Japanese furs have the same defects as the Chinese. The highest grade exported from Japan is a kind of racoon skin, which is sold as fox. The fur is long and close, but not of a good quality, although the skins can be made up into serviceable muffs, coats, collars, and so forth. The Chinese furs are, as a rule, marbled, mink and other, are no better in comparison than the Japanese racoon, having a yellow color and being available for the cheap fur business only.

In all branches of the fur trade, the American furriers are as good as the best. For some things other countries enjoy supremacy, one instance being the London dyed material. American furriers produce very fine work in this particular, but owing to some peculiarity in the dye used, which is a trade secret, or, as some furriers think, because of the atmosphere and water of London, the seal skin dyed there possesses qualities which are elsewhere lacking. The Parisian furriers get the best results in dyeing Russian sable, while the London furriers excel in dyed black Persian lamb and dyed blue, gray, black and smoke fox skins. The Russians turn out good beaver skins with good breeding and good seal skins, but so skilfully that the skin is scarcely detected from real one.

SHIPS WILL BE LARGER.

This Generation Will See Ocean Steamers of 100,000 Tons.

Probable developments in the increase in size of ships will form the subject-matter of several papers to be communicated to the Twelfth International Navigation Congress, beginning in Philadelphia on May 22 next. C. Loemans of Amsterdam in his paper will predict that a few years will see vessels of 70,000 and 75,000 tons traversing the ship lanes of the North Atlantic. In a generation he believes there will be ocean leviathans of 100,000 tons plying between Europe and North America. This size vessel, he says, will have a length of 1,500 feet, a width of 100 feet, and a draught of more than 50 feet. E. L. Corbitt of New York will also discuss this subject at the congress. His predictions are based on tables worked out from past increases and from the economic advantages of larger ships. He believes that vessels of 1,000 feet in length for 1915 is a modest prediction.

The future size of both merchant and war vessels has been a subject of bearing on the size necessary for canals. Mr. Corbitt points out that important ship canals should be large enough to accommodate the largest vessels afloat, because even the merchant vessels are likely to be impressed into service by their governments in time of war. When it is completed two years hence, the Panama canal will be the first great canal with capacity to pass the greatest vessels afloat. Its locks will take vessels nearly 100 feet wide, more than 100 feet deep and of 100 feet long. The dimensions were insisted on by the General Naval Board of the United States after the consulting board and canal commission had suggested a size that has already been proved inadequate.

TERMINALS IN ENGLAND.

A London Railroad Station That Daily Handles vast Crowds.

Until the new Pennsylvania station was built, the city of New York's railway terminals could not compare with many of the big railway terminals on the other side of the Atlantic. Now with the Pennsylvania terminal built and the New York Central's mighty building in the process of completion, New York will boast of the two biggest and best equipped railway terminals in the world.

Up to date, the Pennsylvania terminal was projected, the largest railway station in the world was at Lime Street, Liverpool, a station built thirty years ago, and used by no fewer than five railways operating in the North of England, and containing forty platforms. The Lime Street station is far surpassed by both New York terminals. In London there are many famous stations with worldwide reputations, the largest being the Liverpool Street station of the Great Eastern Railway. This terminal and its hotel connected with it is one of the oldest and largest in London and handles a full million passengers daily. One of the sights of the city is to see the enormous crowds that arrive daily from the Eastern suburbs and disperse through the five exits of the station.

The station is divided into two sections, one for the handling of the main lines and long distance trains and the other for local traffic, consisting of thirty-five platforms. The Great Eastern Company, like all other English companies, has a large number of tracks for main line work and the others for slow trains or local traffic. The train dispatchers handle the outgoing trains and the same number of incoming trains in the space of an hour, which is the world's record.

Where the New York terminals are handicapped is that there is only sufficient room to provide for two tracks, to meet demands created on their traffic. Otherwise the dispatchers here could easily duplicate or exceed the Liverpool Street record.

New Eastern station on the London and Great Eastern Railway is a mighty, brightly lit, modern station, built on a site smaller than its rival, the Great Eastern, and has thirty-two platforms. The conveniences and accommodation for its passengers is much superior, however. Other stations with which the New York terminals are familiar in London are the Victoria and Charing Cross stations, of the London and Brighton and South Eastern Railways, though they are small in comparison with New York terminals. One of the show stations of the United Kingdom is the Union station at Manchester, which has the reputation of being the most beautiful, architecturally, of any terminal in the world, a boast which is somewhat justified. It is a building which has been the admiration of travellers who have seen the Great Indian Peninsula Railway terminal, the Victoria, at Bombay, India.

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During the year 1910 the number of patients treated in the Hospital wards was 844 and a total of 517 surgical operations were performed. The General Dispensary had an attendance of 7,450 different patients, with a total of 20,262 visits. The Morgagni Clinic for tuberculous diseases administered to 331 patients who received 1,153 visits in the clinic and 2,030 visits in their homes.

The Hospital has also a Training School for Nurses with 16 pupils under the direction of a Registered Nurse duly qualified for the conduct of the School, which is supervised by the State Board of Education.

The benevolent work done by the Institution during the same year 1910 is commensurate as follows: Persons assisted with food, lodging, clothing or money, 2,354. Persons assisted for their return to Italy, 191.

The Institution is governed by a Board of Directors (24) elected by the members of the Society, and managed by a General Superintendent. The technical direction of the Hospital and Dispensary is in care of a Medical Board made up of all the Visiting Physicians and Surgeons of the Hospital Staff (14) in number.

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